
Safe Equilibrium

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Abstract

1 The standard game-theoretic solution concept, Nash equilibrium, assumes that
2 all players behave rationally. If we follow a Nash equilibrium and opponents
3 are irrational (or follow strategies from a different Nash equilibrium), then we
4 may obtain an extremely low payoff. On the other hand, a maximin strategy
5 assumes that all opposing agents are playing to minimize our payoff (even if it is
6 not in their best interest), and ensures the maximal possible worst-case payoff, but
7 results in exceedingly conservative play. We propose a new solution concept called
8 safe equilibrium that models opponents as behaving rationally with a specified
9 probability and behaving potentially arbitrarily with the remaining probability. We
10 prove that a safe equilibrium exists in all strategic-form games (for all possible
11 values of the rationality parameters), and prove that its computation is PPAD-hard.

12 1 Introduction

13 In designing a strategy for a multiagent interaction an agent must balance between the assumption
14 that opponents are behaving rationally with the risks that may occur if opponents behave irrationally.
15 Most classic game-theoretic solution concepts, such as Nash equilibrium (NE), assume that all players
16 are behaving rationally (and that this fact is common knowledge). On the other hand, a maximin
17 strategy plays a strategy that has the largest worst-case guaranteed expected payoff; this limits the
18 potential downside against a worst-case and potentially irrational opponent, but can also cause us to
19 achieve significantly lower payoff against rational opponents. In two-player zero-sum games, Nash
20 equilibrium and maximin strategies are equivalent (by the minimax theorem), and these two goals
21 are completely aligned. But in non-zero-sum games and games with more than two players, this is
22 not the case. In these games we can potentially obtain arbitrarily low payoff by following a Nash
23 equilibrium strategy, but if we follow a maximin strategy will likely be playing far too conservatively.
24 While the assumption that opponents are exhibiting a degree of rationality, as well as the desire to
25 limit worst-case performance in the case of irrational opponents, are both desirable, neither the Nash
26 equilibrium nor maximin solution concept is definitively compelling on its own.

27 We propose a new solution concept that balances between these two extremes. In a two-player
28 general-sum game, we define an ϵ -safe equilibrium (ϵ -SE) as a strategy profile where each player i is
29 playing a strategy that minimizes performance of the opponent with probability ϵ_i , and is playing a
30 best response to the opponent's strategy with probability $1 - \epsilon_i$, where $\epsilon = (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)$. As a special case,
31 if we are interested in constructing a strategy for player 1, we can set $\epsilon_1 = 0$, assuming irrationality
32 just for player 2. We can generalize this to an n -player game by assuming that all players $i \neq 1$ are
33 playing a strategy that minimizes player 1's expected payoff with probability ϵ_i , and are playing
34 a best response to all other players' strategies with probability $1 - \epsilon_i$, while player 1 plays a best
35 response to all other players' strategies. This concept balances explicitly between the assumption of
36 players' rationality and the desire to ensure safety in the worst case through the ϵ_i parameters.

37 Several other game-theoretic solution concepts have been previously proposed to account for degrees
38 of opponents' rationality. The most prominent is *trembling-hand perfect equilibrium* (THPE), which

39 is a refinement of Nash equilibrium that is robust to the possibility that players “tremble” and
40 play each pure strategy with arbitrarily small probability [4]. The concept of ϵ -safe equilibrium
41 differs from THPE in several key ways. First, it allows a player to specify an arbitrary belief on the
42 probability that each other player is irrational, rather than assume that it is an extremely small value.
43 In domains like national security or driving we risk losing lives in the event that we fail to properly
44 account for opponents’ irrationality, and may elect to use larger values for ϵ_i than in situations where
45 safety is less of a concern. In an ϵ -SE a player can specify the values for ϵ_i based on prior beliefs
46 about the opponent or any relevant domain-specific knowledge, and is still free to use values that are
47 extremely close to 0 as in THPE. Furthermore, a THPE is a refinement of NE, while ϵ -SE and NE
48 are incomparable (an ϵ -SE may not be an NE and vice versa). Another related concept is that of a
49 *safe strategy* and *ϵ -safe strategy* [3]. A strategy for a player in a two-player zero-sum game is called
50 safe if it guarantees an expected payoff of at least v^* —the value of the game to the player—in the
51 worse case. Note that this also coincides with the set of minimax, maximin, and Nash equilibrium
52 strategies. A strategy is ϵ -safe if it obtains a worst-case expected payoff of at least $v^* - \epsilon$. The
53 concepts of safe and ϵ -safe strategies are defined just for two-player zero-sum games, while safe and
54 ϵ -safe equilibrium also apply to non-zero-sum and multiplayer games.

55 We note that a belief of opponents’ “irrationality” does not necessarily indicate that we believe them
56 to be “stupid” or “crazy.” It may simply correspond to a belief that the opponent may have a different
57 model of the game than we do. For example, our analysis may indicate that a successful attack on a
58 location would result in a certain payoff for the opponent, while their analysis indicates a different
59 payoff. In addition to potentially constructing different assessments of their own or other players’
60 payoffs, opponents may also be “irrational” because they are using an algorithm for computing a
61 Nash equilibrium that is only able to yield an approximation, or just a different Nash equilibrium
62 from what other players have calculated (in fact, these cases do not actually seem to be irrational
63 at all, since computing a Nash equilibrium is computationally challenging and many games have
64 multiple Nash equilibria). If any of these situations arise, then simply following an arbitrary Nash
65 equilibrium strategy runs a risk of an extremely low payoff, and there is potential for significant
66 benefit by ensuring a degree of safety.

67 An alternative approach for modeling potentially irrational opponents is to incorporate an *opponent*
68 *modeling algorithm*. An approach called a restricted Nash response was developed for two-player
69 zero-sum games where the opponent is restricted to play a fixed strategy σ_{fix} determined by an
70 opponent model with probability p and plays a best response to us with probability $1 - p$ while we
71 best respond to the opponent (it is shown that this approach is equivalent to playing an ϵ -safe best
72 response to σ_{fix} (a best response to σ_{fix} out of strategies that are ϵ -safe) for some ϵ) [2]. It was
73 shown that for certain values of p this approach can result in a significant reduction in the level of
74 exploitability of our own strategy while only a slight reduction in our degree of exploitation of the
75 opponent’s strategy. It has also been shown that approaches that compute an ϵ -safe best response
76 to a model of the opponent’s strategy for dynamically changing values of ϵ in repeated two-player
77 zero-sum games can guarantee safety [1]. An ϵ -safe equilibrium strategy can be used in non-zero-sum
78 and multiplayer games where models are available for the opponents’ strategies by assuming each
79 opponent i follows their opponent model with probability ϵ_i instead of playing a worst-case strategy
80 for us, while also playing a best response with probability $1 - \epsilon_i$. Thus, in the event that an opponent
81 model is available we can view safe equilibrium as a generalization of restricted Nash response to
82 achieve robust opponent exploitation in the settings of non-zero-sum and multiplayer games.

83 2 Safe Equilibrium

84 A *strategic-form game* consists of a finite set of players $N = \{1, \dots, n\}$, a finite set of pure
85 strategies S_i for each player $i \in N$, and a real-valued utility for each player for each strategy
86 vector (aka *strategy profile*), $u_i : \times_i S_i \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. A *mixed strategy* σ_i for player i is a probability
87 distribution over pure strategies, where $\sigma_i(s_{i'})$ is the probability that player i plays pure strategy
88 $s_{i'} \in S_i$ under σ_i . Let Σ_i denote the full set of mixed strategies for player i . A strategy profile
89 $\sigma^* = (\sigma_1^*, \dots, \sigma_n^*)$ is a *Nash equilibrium* if $u_i(\sigma_i^*, \sigma_{-i}^*) \geq u_i(\sigma_i, \sigma_{-i}^*)$ for all $\sigma_i \in \Sigma_i$ for all $i \in N$,
90 where $\sigma_{-i}^* \in \Sigma_{-i}$ denotes the vector of the components of strategy σ^* for all players excluding
91 player i . Here u_i denotes the expected utility for player i , and Σ_{-i} denotes the set of strategy
92 profiles for all players excluding player i . A mixed strategy σ_i^* for player i is a *maximin strategy* if
93 $\sigma_i^* \in \arg \max_{\sigma_i \in \Sigma_i} \min_{\sigma_{-i} \in \Sigma_{-i}} u_i(\sigma_i, \sigma_{-i})$.

94 **Definition 1.** Let G be a two-player strategic-form game. Let $\epsilon = (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)$, where $\epsilon_i \in [0, 1]$ for
 95 $i = 1, 2$. A strategy profile σ^* is an ϵ -safe equilibrium if there exist mixed strategies $\tau_i^*, \rho_i^* \in \Sigma_i$
 96 where $\sigma_i^* = \epsilon_i \tau_i^* + (1 - \epsilon_i) \rho_i^*$ for $i = 1, 2$ such that $\rho_i^* \in \arg \max_{\sigma_i \in \Sigma_i} u_i(\sigma_i, \sigma_{-i}^*)$, $\tau_i^* \in$
 97 $\arg \min_{\sigma_i \in \Sigma_i} u_{-i}(\sigma_{-i}^*, \sigma_i)$.

98 In practice player i would likely want to set $\epsilon_i = 0$ and $\epsilon_j > 0$ for $j \neq i$ when determining their own
 99 strategy, though Definition 1 allows an arbitrary value of $\epsilon_i \in [0, 1]$ as well. It may make sense for
 100 player i to set $\epsilon_i > 0$ if they believe both that the opponent is irrational with some probability ϵ_{-i} ,
 101 and if they also believe that the opponent believes that player i is irrational with some probability ϵ_i .

102 **Theorem 1.** Let $G = (N, (S_i)_{i \in N}, (u_i)_{i \in N})$ be a two-player strategic-form game, and let $\epsilon =$
 103 (ϵ_1, ϵ_2) , where $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2 \in [0, 1]$. Then G contains an ϵ -safe equilibrium.

Proof. Define $G' = (N', (S'_i)_{i \in N'}, (u'_i)_{i \in N'})$ to be the following game. $N' = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $S'_1 =$
 $S'_2 = S_1$, $S'_3 = S'_4 = S_2$. For $s'_i \in S'_i$, define u'_i as follows for $i \in N'$:

$$\begin{aligned} u'_1(s'_1, s'_2, s'_3, s'_4) &= -\epsilon_2 u_2(s'_1, s'_3) - (1 - \epsilon_2) u_2(s'_1, s'_4) \\ u'_2(s'_1, s'_2, s'_3, s'_4) &= \epsilon_2 u_1(s'_2, s'_3) + (1 - \epsilon_2) u_1(s'_2, s'_4) \\ u'_3(s'_1, s'_2, s'_3, s'_4) &= -\epsilon_1 u_1(s'_1, s'_3) - (1 - \epsilon_1) u_1(s'_2, s'_3) \\ u'_4(s'_1, s'_2, s'_3, s'_4) &= \epsilon_1 u_2(s'_1, s'_4) + (1 - \epsilon_1) u_2(s'_2, s'_4) \end{aligned}$$

104 Player 1's strategy corresponds to τ_1^* , player 2's strategy corresponds to ρ_1^* , player 3's strategy
 105 corresponds to τ_2^* , and player 4's strategy corresponds to ρ_2^* . By Nash's existence theorem, the game
 106 G' has a Nash equilibrium, which corresponds to an ϵ -safe equilibrium of G . \square

107 **Theorem 2.** The problem of computing an ϵ -safe equilibrium in two-player games is PPAD-hard.

Proof. Let $G = (N, (S_i)_{i \in N}, (u_i)_{i \in N})$ be a two-player strategic-form game. Suppose that k is
 the smallest possible payoff for any player in G , and let $k' = k - 1$. Define the game $G' =$
 $(N', (S'_i)_{i \in N'}, (u'_i)_{i \in N'})$ as follows. $N' = \{1, 2\}$, $S'_1 = S_1 \cup t$, $S'_2 = S_2 \cup t$. For $s'_i \in S'_i$, define u'_i
 as follows for $i \in N'$:

$$\begin{aligned} u'_i(s'_1, s'_2) &= u_i(s'_1, s'_2) \text{ for } s_1 \in S_1, s_2 \in S_2. \\ u'_i(t, s'_2) &= k' \text{ for } s'_2 \in S_2. \\ u'_i(s'_1, t) &= k' \text{ for } s'_1 \in S_1. \\ u'_i(t, t) &= k'. \end{aligned}$$

Suppose we can efficiently compute an ϵ -safe equilibrium of G' , denoted by $\sigma^{G'}$. Then we
 have $\sigma_i^{G'} = \epsilon_i \tau_i^* + (1 - \epsilon_i) \rho_i^*$ for $i = 1, 2$, where $\rho_i^* \in \arg \max_{\sigma'_i \in \Sigma'_i} u_i(\sigma'_i, \sigma_{-i}^{G'})$, $\tau_i^* \in$
 $\arg \min_{\sigma'_i \in \Sigma'_i} u_{-i}(\sigma_{-i}^{G'}, \sigma'_i)$. I claim that ρ^* is a Nash equilibrium of G . First note that ρ_i^* must
 put probability 0 on t for all players, since t is strictly dominated. So it is a valid strategy profile of G .
 Also note that τ_i^* must put probability 1 on t for all i . Suppose that player i can improve performance
 in G by deviating to η_i . Then

$$\begin{aligned} u_i(\eta_i, \rho_{-i}^*) &> u_i(\rho_i^*, \rho_{-i}^*) \\ (1 - \epsilon_i) u_i(\eta_i, \rho_{-i}^*) + \epsilon_i k' &> (1 - \epsilon_i) u_i(\rho_i^*, \rho_{-i}^*) + \epsilon_i k' \\ (1 - \epsilon_i) u_i(\eta_i, \rho_{-i}^*) + \epsilon_i u_i(\eta_i, t) &> (1 - \epsilon_i) u_i(\rho_i^*, \rho_{-i}^*) + \epsilon_i u_i(\eta_i, t) \\ (1 - \epsilon_i) u_i(\eta_i, \rho_{-i}^*) + \epsilon_i u_i(\eta_i, t) &> (1 - \epsilon_i) u_i(\rho_i^*, \rho_{-i}^*) + \epsilon_i u_i(\rho_i^*, t) \\ (1 - \epsilon_i) u_i(\eta_i, \rho_{-i}^*) + \epsilon_i u_i(\eta_i, \tau_{-i}^*) &> (1 - \epsilon_i) u_i(\rho_i^*, \rho_{-i}^*) + \epsilon_i u_i(\rho_i^*, \tau_{-i}^*) \\ u_i(\eta_i, \sigma_{-i}^{G'}) &> u_i(\rho_i^*, \sigma_{-i}^{G'}). \end{aligned}$$

108 This contradicts the fact that $\rho_i^* \in \arg \max_{\sigma'_i \in \Sigma'_i} u_i(\sigma'_i, \sigma_{-i}^{G'})$. So we have a contradiction, and
 109 conclude that no player can improve performance in G by deviating from ρ^* . So ρ^* is a Nash
 110 equilibrium of G . Since the problem of computing a Nash equilibrium is PPAD-hard and we
 111 have reduced it to the problem of computing an ϵ -safe equilibrium, this shows that the problem of
 112 computing an ϵ -safe equilibrium is PPAD-hard. \square

$$\begin{bmatrix} (0, 0) & (-1, +1) \\ (+1, -1) & (-10, -10) \end{bmatrix}$$

Figure 1: Payoff matrix for game of Chicken.

$$\begin{bmatrix} (4, -3) & (-1, 1) & (-7, 2) \\ (-5, 5) & (2, -1) & (-1, 4) \\ (-9, 1) & (-1, 8) & (9, -4) \end{bmatrix}$$

Figure 2: Security game payoff matrix.

113 For $n > 2$ players, we designate one of the players as being a special player, say player 1. We
 114 can view player 1 as representing “ourselves” as a decision-making agent, and the other players as
 115 unpredictable opponents. Player 1 then best responds to the strategy profile of all other players, while
 116 each opposing player i mixes between playing a strategy that minimizes player 1’s payoff and a
 117 strategy that maximizes player i ’s payoff in response to the strategy profile of the other players.

118 **Definition 2.** Let G be an n -player strategic-form game. Let $\epsilon = (\epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n)$, where $\epsilon_i \in [0, 1]$.
 119 A strategy profile σ^* is an ϵ -safe equilibrium if there exists a mixed strategy σ_1^* for player 1 and
 120 mixed strategies $\tau_i^*, \rho_i^* \in \Sigma_i$ where $\sigma_i^* = \epsilon_i \tau_i^* + (1 - \epsilon_i) \rho_i^*$ for $i = 2, \dots, n$ such that $\rho_i^* \in$
 121 $\arg \max_{\sigma_i \in \Sigma_i} u_i(\sigma_i, \sigma_{-i}^*)$, $\tau_i^* \in \arg \min_{\sigma_i \in \Sigma_i} u_1(\sigma_1^*, \sigma')$, $\sigma_1^* \in \arg \max_{\sigma_1 \in \Sigma_1} u_1(\sigma_1, \sigma_{-1}^*)$, where
 122 σ' is the strategy profile for players 2– n where player i plays σ_i and the other players $j \neq i$ play σ_j^* .

123 The proof of Theorem 1 extends naturally to $n > 2$ players as well by creating a $2(n-1)+1 = 2n-1$
 124 player game with 2 new players corresponding to each original player for $i > 1$, plus player 1.

125 **Theorem 3.** For all ϵ , every n -player strategic-form game contains an ϵ -safe equilibrium.

126 **Theorem 4.** The problem of computing an ϵ -safe equilibrium in n -player games is PPAD-hard.

127 As an example, consider the classic game of Chicken, with payoffs given by Figure 1. The first action
 128 for each player corresponds to the “swerve” action, while the second corresponds to the “straight”
 129 action. The unique mixed-strategy Nash equilibrium σ^{NE} in the Chicken game is for each player to
 130 swerve with probability 0.9 (there are also two pure-strategy equilibria where one player swerves and
 131 the other player doesn’t), and the unique maximin strategy σ^M is to swerve with probability 1. If we
 132 set $\epsilon_1 = 0$, then it turns out that σ_1^{NE} is an ϵ -safe equilibrium strategy for player 1 for $0 \leq \epsilon_2 \leq 0.1$,
 133 and σ_1^M is an ϵ -safe equilibrium strategy for player 1 for $0.1 \leq \epsilon_2 \leq 1$. It is not necessary that
 134 an ϵ -safe equilibrium strategy always corresponds to a Nash equilibrium or maximin strategy. For
 135 example, with $\epsilon_1 = 0.05$ and $\epsilon_2 = 0.15$, an ϵ -safe equilibrium strategy profile is for player 1 to
 136 swerve with probability 0.95 and player 2 to swerve with probability 0.

137 As another example, consider the security game depicted in Figure 2, where the row player selects
 138 one of three targets to defend while the column player selects a target to attack. A Nash equilibrium
 139 for player 1 (row player) σ_1^{NE} is to defend the targets with probabilities (0.3136, 0.4661, 0.2203),
 140 and a maximin strategy σ_1^M is to defend the targets with probabilities (0.6144, 0.0131, 0.3725).
 141 Again using $\epsilon_1 = 0$, for $\epsilon_2 \in [0, 0.314]$ it turns out that σ_1^{NE} is an ϵ -safe equilibrium strategy for
 142 player 1, and for $\epsilon_2 \in [0.569, 1]$ σ_1^M is an ϵ -safe equilibrium strategy for player 1. But for the region
 143 $\epsilon_2 \in [0.314, 0.569]$ it turns out that the strategy (0.4437, 0.3666, 0.1897) is an ϵ -safe equilibrium
 144 strategy for player 1, which is neither a Nash equilibrium strategy nor a maximin strategy.

145 3 Conclusion

146 While Nash equilibrium has emerged as the central game-theoretic solution concept, its assumption
 147 that all players behave rationally may be too strict when modeling real human decision makers. As
 148 game theory is being increasingly applied to high-stakes situations, such as self-driving cars and
 149 national security, it is essential that strategies are able to accommodate the possibility of opponents’
 150 irrationality, which may be unpredictable. At the other end of the spectrum, a maximin strategy
 151 assumes that all opponents are trying to minimize our payoff, resulting in exceedingly conservative
 152 play with low payoffs. Safe equilibrium effectively bridges the gap between these two extremes,
 153 enabling us to construct strategies that are robust to arbitrary degrees of opponents’ irrationality.

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